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ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography provides a representative sample of the available literature on mentoring. It reviews both qualitative and quantitative research, and covers specific mentoring programs, program implementation, and testimonials to the benefits of mentoring. Materials covered include 40 journal articles, conference papers, books, and dissertations. They are arranged alphabetically by author. Publication dates range from 1978 to the present. Terminology for participants in the mentoring process, and for the process itself, vary throughout the literature. A number of synonyms for mentor (including sponsor, patron, model, and developer) and mentee (including protege, apprentice, modeler, and developee) are used, depending on authorial perspective and the context of the mentoring experience. In most cases, formal or programmatic mentoring, in which mentors are assigned to mentees, is under consideration. Materials covered in the bibliography were selected because they convey a clear sense of mentors, mentees, and the mentoring process; they are intended to provide a starting point for an exploration of the literature. Annotations include detailed summaries of item contents. (Author/AF)

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MENTORING: A REPRESENTATIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY

INTRODUCTION

This annotated bibliography represents a limited sample of available mentoring literature. It includes both quantitative and qualitative research; and articles on specific programs, program implementation, and testimonials to the benefits of mentoring. The articles, books, and dissertations reviewed begin chronologically with Collins and Scott's (1978) initial work, *Everyone Who Makes It Has a Mentor* (see page 10), and move forward to current publications.

Terms for the mentor, mentee, and mentor process in the literature vary depending on the perspective of the author(s) and context of the mentoring experience. Thus, the following related terms are used in the annotations: mentor, sponsor, patron, model, developer; and mentee, protege, apprentice, modeler, developee. Also, the mentoring experience is most frequently described in terms of formalized programs which assign mentors to mentees.

As one reads through the large volume of available mentoring literature, it becomes very clear that no single definition of mentor, mentee, or the mentoring process has been clearly delineated. *Youth Mentoring: Programs and Practices* (Flaxman, Ascher, & Harrington, December, 1988, see page 13-14), the companion publication to this bibliography, is the first to attempt to gather together scattered references and definitions of what a mentor/mentee is and what the mentoring process is, offer descriptions of mentoring programs, and make sense of the large volume of literature and usage of the terms "mentors" and the "mentoring process."

The other articles, books, etc., annotated in the following pages were selected because they seem to provide the clearest available foci of what in fact a mentor, mentee, or the mentoring process is, and give the reader a starting point from which to explore the literature at length in greater detail.

Alleman, E. (1986). *Measuring mentoring - frequency, quality, impact.* In W.A. Gray & M.M. Gray (Eds.), *Mentoring: Aid to excellence in career development, business and the professions*, pp. 44-51. Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring (Vol. II). Vancouver, BC: International Association for Mentoring.

The author describes mentoring as an important relationship in the personal and career development of adults. Higher pay, rapid promotions, and movement into leadership positions within organizations are cited as mentee benefits. The author offers two instruments to measure the amount and quality of organizational mentoring activity taking place in an organization, and discusses how these instruments can be used in conjunction with existing productivity figures or promotion data and how the impact of mentoring can be assessed for both the organization and individual. The instruments are the Alleman Leadership Development Questionnaire (ALDQ) and the Alleman Relationship Value Questionnaire (ARVQ). The ALDQ is a two-part Likert-type questionnaire which measures different types of mentor behaviors. One part is given to mentors and the other to their mentee or subordinates. Content validity of the ALDQ is based on 85% inter-rater agreement of expert judges.

According to the author, the ALDQ diagnostically measures the amount of mentoring activity in an organizational work unit and identifies individuals acting as mentors or being treated as mentees. The ARVQ, a 50-item Likert-type questionnaire, asks whether the person whose actions are described is considered a mentor and uses multiple linear regression to test variance accounted for.

The author concludes that using ALDQ and ARVQ diagnostic measures allows for both the measurement of the quality of mentoring activity taking place in an organization, and assessment of who is viewed as a mentor and who contributes to the protege's career. Until an instrument is developed and validated which combines both aspects of the ALDQ and ARVQ, these two instruments can be used separately to measure mentoring activity taking place within an organization.

Alleman, E. (1983). *Mentoring relationships in organizations: Behaviors, personality characteristics, and interpersonal perceptions.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Akron, Akron, OH. (University Microfilms No. 82-137-14)

The study on which this dissertation is based asks three primary questions: (1) do mentors behave differently from their peers or is the difference due to a subordinate response to similar behaviors, as proteges recognize and acknowledge the beneficial impacts of similar behaviors on their careers; (2) do measurable psychological characteristics distinguish mentors from non-mentors, and proteges from non-proteges; and (3) is the basis for mentor or protege selection to their perceived self, or to a similarity to an ideal opposite?

Results indicate significant differences between reported behaviors for mentors and comparison groups. Differences in special treatment of proteges by mentors beyond mentoring behaviors are not found. Psychological characteristics of mentors and proteges are compared with non-mentored groups, with no differences in personality characteristics found. Profile analyses of proteges and unmentored peers show three different profiles in each group, with profiles from the protege groups similar.

The author finds that mentors and proteges are no more similar than members of the non-mentored comparison group for biological factors or psychological characteristics, contrary to existing mentoring literature. Also, descriptions of mentoring partners by mentoring pairs are no closer to measured characteristics or self descriptions of other partners in non-mentoring comparison groups. Contrary to the literature, mentors and proteges describe each other more as ideal opposites than themselves. In addition to differences in mentor behaviors, there is an additional labeling effect felt by proteges.

The authors conclude that the mentoring group behaves differently from companion groups, with particular actions and attitudes displayed more often. Behavioral differences exist beyond the effects of sex, race, and gender combinations within dyads, or perceived organization policies on subordinate treatment. Mentoring occurs in a wide range of organizational types and functions. And most importantly, group differences are found in behaviors, not attributes. Those behaving like mentors see proteges as more similar to an ideal subordinate, while proteges identify with mentors.

Alleman, E., Cochran, J., Doverspike, J., & Newman, I. (1984, February). Enriching mentoring relationships. *The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 62* (6), 329-32.

The authors ask what facts are important to mentoring. They define mentoring as a relationship where a person of greater rank or expertise teaches, guides, and develops a novice within an organization or profession. The mentor's experience is seen as benefiting a protege's personal and professional development.

The authors seek to determine whether mentoring relationships change over time, with mentors in longer-established relationships behaving differently from those in newer relationships. Their research poses six questions: (1) does the behavior of mentors distinguish them from non-mentoring peers; (2) are there differences in the behavior of newer and more experienced mentors; (3) are there differences in mentoring behavior related to the gender of either mentor or protege; (4) do personality characteristics distinguish mentors from non-mentors or proteges from their peers; (5) is actual similarity of personality or background greater in mentor-protege dyads than in non-mentoring pairs; and (6) do mentors or proteges perceive themselves to be similar to each other.

In this research 100 individuals/50 dyads report independently on several aspects of their mentoring relationships. Twenty-nine pairs report having a mentoring relationship and 21 pairs report no mentoring relationship. Jackson Personality Inventory, adjective checklists, and leadership development questionnaires are administered.

Results of this study indicate that: mentors and non-mentors behave differently; patterns of behavior emerging among mentors show no variation of behavior profiles, as appears among non-mentors; differences among behavior patterns of mentors and relationships of those differences to the amount of mentoring experience supports previous discussions of the dynamic nature of the mentor relationship and its phases or stages; behavior patterns in mentoring relationships do not vary with gender; no differences in personality profiles between mentors and non-mentors exist; no particular profiles typical of mentors or proteges emerge; mentors and proteges are not more alike than control pairs in personality characteristics measured by the Jackson Personality Inventory or in background factors measured by Biographical Information Questionnaires; and mentors do not describe proteges as more similar to themselves than did the control group. Proteges, on the other hand, use the same terms to describe themselves and mentors more often than non-proteges.

Differences between mentors and non-mentors are found in what they do, not why they are. Groups of behaviors, rather than sets of innate attributes, are characteristic of select individuals which differentiate mentors from non-mentors.

Basoe, S.A., & Glasser Howe, K. (1980, Summer). Role model influence: Effects of sex and sex-role attitudes in college students. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 4* (4), 558-72.

This study attempts to identify and explore variables associated with the career development of women of varying ages through role model influence. Subjects of the study range in age from 19 to 23 and are college undergraduates. The study concentrates on women and the role modeling process with regard to the sex of the subject and model, and attitudes regarding sex-role behaviors and stereotypes. A social learning viewpoint is cited by the authors, with children imitating same sex models more than opposite sex ones due to differential reinforcement, greater attentiveness, and perceived similarity to the model. The authors' definition of a role model is someone whose life and activities influence the respondent in specific life decisions with either positive or negative influence.

Two important variables in this research are the sex of the subject and the sex of the model. Earlier studies have demonstrated the importance and influence of female role models on the career development of women at various ages and educational levels; mother's influence on daughter's career orientations and attitudes; exposure to other female role models through work experiences; and the mentor's influence on female students with regard to achievement and success, goals and values, and subsequent professional achievement and productivity. Also, the attitude of individuals regarding sex role behaviors and stereotypes as the basis for feelings of interpersonal cohesiveness and attitude similarity is important to this study.

The researchers performed two experiments. The first experiment tested the effect of role models on three subject choices: high school career choice, college choice, and college career choice for college undergraduates. Sixty-two undergraduate subjects participated from a sample of 75 students in psychology courses. Subjects over 23 years of age or with incomplete responses on their questionnaires are eliminated. The second experiment tested the effect of role models on the subject's college career choice, in particular for college seniors, using 300 college seniors separated by sex. Ninety-six questionnaires mailed to potential respondents were completed and returned with 30 male and 30 female respondents selected from completed questionnaires.

Major findings of both experiments are that males and females do not differ significantly in the degree to which they are influenced about certain life decisions, and that they are influenced differentially by specific people. Females, however, are influenced more by female models more than by male models, although males and females are equally influenced by male models. The authors assert that this finding has relevance for affirmative action programs, as it suggests females in certain career positions may be particularly important for younger females.

Betty, B., Beard, B., Moore, S., & Van Voorhees, B.V. (1986, February). *The Academy in mentoring: A model for encouraging the academic achievement of young adolescent girls.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators, Atlanta, Georgia.

The authors maintain that mentoring at the junior high or middle school level is critical for adolescent females, with a focus on both students and teachers, although few mentoring programs exist that address the needs of girls ages twelve to fifteen and use teachers as their mentors. Mentoring is a tool to discover and develop talent rather than a program that uses the protege model and assumes that the mentee's innate talent is already in the process of being developed.

The purpose of this project was to intervene in the lives of adolescent girls before attitudes are set that limit academic goals; and to encourage adolescent females to elect math, science and technical courses throughout high school and/or college to provide greater future career opportunities.

Six men and nine women participated in this project as teacher/mentors. Teachers were given training and practice mentoring skills before they were assigned to mentees. No information is given about the criteria used for teacher selection.

The study's subjects were high achieving students with low career aspirations: 30 seventh and eighth grade girls chosen on the basis of achievement test scores or honor role grades. They were also chosen on the basis of Career Attitude Survey questionnaires, administered to all seventh and eighth grade students at three sites to focus on students having low or unclear career aspirations.

Workshops and in-school meetings were held for the teacher/mentors. Student participants then received information related to careers based on science and math which include video tapes, paper and pencil games, touring a district vocational school, "shadowing" local professional women in preferred career areas, and discussing high school course offerings with appropriate counselors. A program evaluation followed.

The project achieved its objective irrespective of locality, socioeconomics, or ethnic differences of its participants. The authors say that their data support the following conclusions: that the project had a positive impact on the knowledge of both the mentors and mentees with reference to how math and science can pave the way for non-traditional careers; that teacher/mentors demonstrated a sense of commitment to set high expectations for the success of all students; and that the project results indicate an affective component to be as important as the cognitive aspects of curriculum. In sum, teachers can influence the career aspirations of young adolescent females.

Bowen, D. (1986, March-June). The role of identification in mentoring female protegees. *Group and Organizational Studies, 11* (1-2), 61-74.

The author discusses widely held beliefs that women have limited opportunities to receive effective mentoring because few females occupy executive positions, and that women cannot identify with males, and then sets out to debunk these assumptions with the hypothesis that mentoring effectiveness is determined by functions the mentor performs and not the gender of, or identification with, a mentor.

Two problems of current mentoring literature noted by the author are: (1) cross-sex mentoring literature frequently warns of potential problems of sexual involvement; and (2) uncertainty about what exactly a mentor is and what a mentor does continues. The author addresses these problems in the literature by sampling a wide variety of organizations and occupations so that the research findings reflect mentoring characteristics in a range of organizations, rather than in only one.

The author's definition of mentoring is actually a description of the mentoring process: "mentoring occurs when a senior person (the mentor) in terms of age and experience undertakes to provide information, advice, and emotional support for a junior person (the protege) in a relationship lasting over an extended period of time marked by substantial emotional commitment by both parties. If opportunity presents itself, the mentor also uses both formal and informal forms of influence to further the career of the protege."

All proteges in this study are women because of the focus on female careers, with both cross-sex and same-sex mentor relationships studied for comparison purposes. The author's sample consists of 32 mentor-protege pairs (14 FF and 18 MF) obtained through personal acquaintances and word-of-mouth referrals. No information on the ethnicity of the study participants is provided.

Results of the study suggest the following: (1) recipients of psychosocial functions are more likely to see their career as "in the fast track"; (2) men are at least as likely as women to provide these functions for female proteges; (3) the effect is not strictly a function of the length of time the relationship has existed; and (4) although identification of mentors with proteges tends to be highest early in the relationship, the psychosocial functions become more predominant later on.

Burke, R.J. (1984, September). Mentors in organizations. *Groups & Organizations Studies, 9* (3), 353-73.

This study examines mentoring relationships in organizations from a protege perspective. The author maintains that mentoring is an outgrowth of corporate interest in careers and career development processes.

The author's focus comes from a corporate view, and is on areas of managerial and organizational functions where mentoring or the lack of mentoring occur with the following impacts: (1) the direct influence on job performance of both mentor and mentees; (2) the mentees' early career socialization; (3) long-range human resource development planning and managerial succession; and (4) preparation of future organization leaders. Mentors directly influence job performance, and mentors and mentees are successful and continuously contribute to their organization throughout their work life. One needs to ask, however, if must be a mentor to contribute or continue to contribute to the organization throughout his or her work life?

According to the author, individuals are socialized in the mentoring process and learn organizational norms from their mentor with the "fit of the individual to the organization enhanced" and employee turnover reduced. Benefits for the corporation are cited; tangible benefits for employees are not. The author claims that mentoring, along with long range human resource development planning and managerial succession, ensures the movement of mentees into more senior jobs, although it is not clearly articulated how this ensuring process occurs.

This study surveys 80 men and women attending management development courses. The author claims the subject population is diverse; however, the definition of "diverse" is very narrow. Study results show that: proteges are approximately 24-years-old when mentoring relationships begin; and that mentors are influential in the mentees' personal and career development, successful in their own work and careers, valued by their organizations, and are in senior managerial jobs oftentimes with more than one protege.

Mentors have the following personal qualities and characteristics: work commitment; approachability and openness; sensitivity and empathy; and supportiveness and helpfulness. Women subjects feel it is not more difficult for women to develop mentor relationships in organizations depending more on abilities and character, the number of women in the organization, the number of women in more senior jobs, the organizational culture and norms, and the attitudes of males in more senior organizational positions.

In addition, females are as likely to have mentors as males, but are more likely to have a female than a male mentor; female proteges report greater mentoring activities of a psychosocial type with female mentors providing more psychosocial activities; etc. Data from this research are cited as supporting the notion that while role models are important to women capable of functioning in the same occupations as men, these role models do not necessarily facilitate women's access to power or influence.

Clawson, J.G. (1986). Chemistry, contingency theory, and interpersonal learning: A theory of developmental relationships in organizations. In W.A. Gray & M.M. Gray (Eds.), *Mentoring: Aid to excellence in career development, business and the professions*, pp. 102-112. Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring (Vol. II). Vancouver, BC: International Association for Mentoring.

This paper examines the mechanisms of developmental relationships in organizations, more specifically, mentoring and other kinds of contingent relationships. The author refers to the senior person in this relationship as the developer, with the junior person as the developee. A developmental relationship is one where both parties accept and recognize the learning of the developee as an objective of the relationship, with the relationship characterized by respect, trust, and management of learning.

Chemistry and contingency theory are defined in the context of developmental learning, with the notion that developmental outcomes of particular relationships depend on the fit between characteristics of the environment, organization, individuals, and their relationships. When relationships work it is because the developer and developee have good "chemistry" between them. When relationships do not work it is because the chemistry is bad.

The author cites previous contingency theory research which examines internal organizational information processing systems, fit between individuals and organizations, fit between individual characteristics and job demands, authority between superiors and subordinates, and emulation, and makes the leap to a theory of developmental relationships in organizations.

The author notes that managers learn to be managers from many sources, with developmental relationships influenced by environmental and organizational factors. Within the developee's interpersonal learning process is self-concept and ideal-self, along with the perceived skills and expertise of the developer. The developee forms the following in the context of complementary aspects in the developer: motivating respect when the developer's expertise is relevant; trust in the developer when the developer's motivations and interpersonal skills are judged to be safe; and learning when the developer takes a moderately active teaching role in the relationship.

The author cautions that in situations or organizations where a management team does not have requisite skills needed to address organizational demands, mentoring or other kinds of developmental relationships cannot produce proper leadership for the future, but does not specifically set out what the "requisite skills" are, or what "proper leadership for the future" is. The author describes developmental relationships as primarily a cloning process, with the caution that only when individuals go beyond their mentoring experiences, and learn from the demands of the situation, will leaders of the future be developed.

Collin, A. (1986). New directions for research. In W.A. Gray & M.M. Gray (Eds.), *Mentoring: Aid to excellence in career development, business and the professions*, pp. 52-59. Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring (Vol. II). Vancouver, BC: International Association for Mentoring.

The author discusses subjective dimensions of mentoring relationships, pointing out that the mentor and protege engage in each other's subjective worlds, while the mentor at the same time gives advice to the mentee about the objective world, nourishes the mentee's self-concept, acts as a sort of mid-wife in the mentee's redefinition of him or herself and the world, and facilitates the alignment of objective and subjective realities.

The author also notes that given the process nature of the mentoring relationship, its existence over time and potential for change needs to be examined.

In addition, the author says that the assumption that the mentoring experience has normative states is flawed. Its context extends beyond the organization where the interaction takes place and includes social class, education, family, and other external influences outside the scope of the organization.

Types of research the author considers appropriate to mentoring are longitudinal, because of the duration and stages of the relationship; comparative, to uncover organizational, occupational, cultural, and gender differences; and the examination of alternatives to mentoring which can achieve similar outcomes. The author suggests positivist philosophy in tandem with the following potential methodologies: triangulation, content analysis, grounded theory, personal construct theory, participant observation, action research, case histories, critical incident and behaviorally-anchored rating scales, social action approach, biographical approach, systems approach, ecological approach, and hermeneutical enquiry.

A catalogue of potential methodologies which could be used to address the subjective dimensions of mentoring is briefly described.

Collins, E., & Scott, P. (1978, July-August). Everyone who makes it has a mentor. *Harvard Business Review*, 89-101.

This article is one of the first acknowledged mentoring articles specifically discussing mentors and the mentoring function. The authors interviewed three individuals, F.J. Lunding, G.L. Clements, and D.S. Perkins, successive chief executives of the Jewel Tea Company and the Jewel Companies. They asked these individuals if there was anyone in their background who "did something for them" to help them along in their careers; how they know each other; what their relationship is; how it functions at the company; etc. The individuals responded to each of the questions with answers that support the benefits of mentors and the mentoring function.

The respondents said that they knew each other on a social level before becoming business associates; that the mentor in the relationship chose the mentee and then guided the mentee's career allowing him to test himself and make mistakes; that mentors passed along organizational values to their successors/mentees; that mentor relationships were important to their careers and provided strong emotional interchange between the two individuals; and that the mentor helped the mentee develop leadership qualities, philosophic attitudes, and the ability to take risks.

Cosgrove, T.J. (1986, March). The effects of participation in a mentoring-transcript program on freshman. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 27*(2), 119-123.

The author examines a student development transcript program based on the assumption that such a program will: (1) increase student awareness of the various dimensions of their development during college; (2) result in a more positive attitude toward the university environment among participating students; (3) improve the retention of students; and (4) increase student participation in growth-producing areas. The author's initial research survey indicates positive responses from administrators and faculty members, parents and students, and employers; however, no empirical evidence is offered to substantiate the positive effects of this program on study participants.

The study program consists of three components: an assessment process where students assess their interests and skills in various developmental areas; a mentoring component where volunteer faculty and staff members act as resource persons to students in areas of college life outside academic classes; and a transcript process which serves as a record of participation in extracurricular activities beyond employment and honors received. Students apply to the program and are randomly selected to participate. Mentors are selected from volunteer faculty members, professional staff members, and administrators; the author does not provide the selection criteria for mentors. Once they have been selected, mentors attend a two-hour training session and one of three one-half hour follow-up meetings.

Students in experimental groups are assigned to mentors; the author fails to cite the criteria used for assignment. Once mentors and mentees have been matched, they meet three times during one school year, and again for a final meeting at the end of the school year, to complete a survey of their experience. The survey asks about the student's use of and satisfaction with campus services, satisfaction with the overall university environment, participation in extracurricular activities, and change in their level of confidence in ten developmental areas. Subgroups within the experimental and control groups are compared to determine differences in program effects on commuter versus resident students; high academic versus low academic ability students; male students versus female students; and students with faculty mentors versus students with mentors from administration or staff.

Results of the study show no significant differences between the experimental and control group's use of university services; the levels of satisfaction with university services; and the level of participation in extracurricular activities with participation in the mentoring component of the program. The author also found significantly higher positive attitudes toward the overall university environment for participants in the program; and pretest/post-test measures of confidence levels of members of experimental and control groups with significant differences between groups in two particular areas, the ability to set and achieve goals, and the ability to solve problems and make decisions. The author assumes that students who participated in this program increased their sense of competence and are likely to vigorously pursue other aspects of their development.

Flaherty, B. (1985). *An experiment in mentoring for high school students assigned to basic courses.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston University, Boston, MA. (University Microfilms No. 85-08907)

The author's dissertation research tests the notion that if students from mainly working class backgrounds are shunted into basic courses of lowest academic standing, but also are provided with faculty mentors who provide access and care for them, their academic performance will improve.

The author's research design uses pre-test/post-test control groups with students randomly selected. Faculty members serve as volunteer mentors to students in experimental groups. Students are analyzed as being mentored or not mentored with students self-selecting which group they belong to. The author uses the presence or absence of a mentor as an independent variable, and academic performance as a dependent variable.

Grade point averages, class attitude evaluations, and attendance records provided quantitative data. Case studies and observations were used for qualitative data. Initially, quantitative data results showed no statistical difference between control and experimental subject groups. To correct for this, while research was in progress, the author had students self-select whether they were or were not mentored with more encouraging results.

The author's conclusions are that it is difficult to improve grade point averages through mentoring, and that techniques to do so need further research. The author also notes that student attendance and attitudes in basic courses seem to be sensitive to mentoring, and that academically less able students are reaffirmed with the correlation between socioeconomic class and academic achievement. Further, students in basic courses are estranged from school and the educational process as a whole, and mentoring with further research is a possible key to helping such students.

Flaxman, E., Ascher, C., & Harrington, C. (1988, December). *Youth mentoring: Programs and practices.* New York, NY: ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

This monograph provides clearly focused definitions of mentors, mentees, and the mentoring process, with a special focus on tenacious and disadvantaged youth. The authors' working definition of mentoring is: "a supportive relationship between a youth or young adult and someone more senior in age and experience, who offers support, guidance, and concrete assistance as the younger partner goes through a difficult period, enters a new area of experience, takes on an important task, or corrects an earlier problem. In general during mentoring, mentees identify or form a strong interpersonal attachment to their mentors; as a result, they are able to do for themselves what their mentors have done for them."

The authors analyze corporate, psychological, and educational literature, and conclude that the tendency in current mentoring literature is to develop and build simplistic models and prototypes. There is great need for further synthesis, research, and development. They also discuss case studies and actual program descriptions, pointing out that this information, too, is limited at best.

The assumptions made by the authors are that: mentoring is carried out by people and program planners with assumptions about society in general and individual's functioning capabilities; and that these social assumptions in turn often predispose who mentors, who is mentored, and what the mentoring function is used for.

They consider three views of society: (1) open and unrestricted; (2) blocked; or (3) organic; which in turn affects mentoring program development. Since current mentoring literature does not make use of these social views, the reader must conjecture about which design is being used and what the outcomes of various programs are or will be.

The paper analyzes existing mentoring literature for adult and youth populations in order to record present day concerns and point out issues affecting program evaluations and planning for potential interventions for mentoring programs involving disadvantaged and tenacious youth; and also to establish some assumptions about mentoring, and principles for conducting mentoring programs, beyond what current mentoring literature considers and fails to consider.

The paper is organized into five chapters: (1) a theoretical discussion of psychological bases of mentoring, particularly of disadvantaged and tenacious youth; (2) a description of informal and formal mentoring in organizations, where mentoring first became popular; (3) a discussion of planned mentoring programs for disadvantaged and tenacious youth; (4) issues of importance in the power of mentoring; and (5) general observations about mentoring programs and policy recommendations for conducting them.

Also included is an appendix containing a list of names, organizations, and programs, which were consulted in the development of the paper.

Galvez-Hjornevik, C. (1986, January-February). Mentoring among teachers: A review of the literature. *Journal of Teacher Education, 37* (1), 6-11.

This review discusses mentoring by teachers. A mentor is a teacher who enhances a younger individual's skills and intellectual development. The mentor serves as a sponsor with influence who promotes the younger person's entry into the organization (i.e., school system) and later advancement. The mentor is host and guide, to bringing the mentee into a new occupational and social world; acquainting the mentee with the values, customs, resources, and the cast of characters for the organization; provides counsel and moral support for the mentee in times of stress; and serving as an example through his or her own virtues, achievement, and way of life, which protege may admire and emulate.

The author's four stages of mentoring are: (1) the initiation stage where the mentor/mentee relationship begins: (2) the cultivation phase where a range of functions are provided to the mentee and increased over time: (3) the separation phase where the nature of the relationship is substantially altered by a structural change in the organizational context and/or by psychological changes of one or both individuals in the mentoring relationship: and (4) and the redefinition stage where the relationship either ends completely or evolves into a new form significantly different from the past.

The mentor's age, gender, organization position, power, and self-confidence are cited as important. Mentors and proteges are not necessarily seen as similar in measured personality characteristics or background factors. The author also notes that strong interpersonal relationships do not necessarily characterize the mentor relationship. The author's crucial components in a mentoring relationship are the ability to work together, otherwise known as "chemistry," but the term is not defined.

Gilbert, L. (1985, January). Dimensions of same-gender student-faculty role model relationships. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 12* (1-2), 111-123.

This study investigates important factors in same gender, student-faculty role model relationships. The study used 33 female and 24 male graduate students in the same academic department responding to the following: scales assessing four role model characteristics (personal attributes, professional achievement, lifestyle and values, power and influence); three areas of perceived similarity between student and role model (attitudes and values, professional goals and personality); and students' achievement orientation in terms of self-esteem, mastery, work and competitiveness.

Of responding students, 75% selected a same gender role model; however, female role models were less available than male role models both within the academic department and as faculty in the classroom. Major differences uncovered by the study were between female and male students and the importance of having a role model relationship, and the extent that role model characteristics were considered important in establishing role model relationships.

Study results indicate that female and male students with same gender role models rate personal attributes and professional achievement highly, in terms of role model characteristics. In addition, female students also rate lifestyle and values highly. Both male and female students rate power and influence relatively low in importance in their role model selection.

The author says that these research findings support the notion that role modeling involves professional and personal dimensions with both the characteristics the modeler observes and perceived similarities between the modeler and role model. Personal attributes, lifestyle, values of the role model, and perceived similarity in values between the modeler and model appear more important in establishment of same gender role model relationships of female students than in those of male students.

Gray, W.A. (1986). Components for developing a successful formalized mentoring program. In W.A. Gray & M.M. Gray (Eds.), *Mentoring: Aid to excellence in career development, business and the professions*, pp. 15-22. Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring (Vol. II). Vancouver, BC: International Association for Mentoring.

The author discusses the components of formalized mentoring programs and implementation of such programs. He points out that many persons can benefit from a mentoring experience; however, few are fortunate enough to have an informal mentor who helps them in key ways. The author sees women and minorities as persons who need mentors the most, but who are least likely to receive such support.

The author's model for a formalized mentoring program has four components; (1) identifying and matching mentors with proteges; (2) training mentors and proteges and support staff; (3) monitoring the mentoring process and retraining if necessary; and (4) evaluating the program, examining the results, and obtaining recommendations from the mentors and proteges for improving the first three components of the model.

Portions of the author's model espouse corporate benefits, but are silent on employee benefits. For example: mentors are to transmit organizational realities, culture, traditions, values, and to socialize the protege and give them corporate "roots"; mentors are to provide feedback to prepare proteges for performance appraisals conducted by others, and to teach their proteges to appraise their own performance; and mentors encourage their proteges' idealism, channeling it into innovations such as new products and services, and fostering creativity and development of the proteges' own style. No empirical research is offered to substantiate the author's claims.

Gray, W.A. (1982, November). Mentor-assisted enrichment projects for the gifted and talented. *Educational Leadership, 40* (2), 16-21.

This article explores a particular mentoring program in an educational setting, with university students as mentors and youngsters as mentees. The author explains that special education programs for the ablest learners have been neglected in the past decade, with economic retrenchment of the 1980s preventing reestablishment of such programs. The article begins with the quote: "Mentoring is good for everybody - the university students who gain experience in working closely with youngsters, and the capable students who receive individual assistance."

The author outlines and describes MAEP (Mentor-Assisted Enrichment Projects), a mentoring program for gifted and talented students, providing a "cookbook" or guide for establishing such a program. Four phases of the mentoring program are plotted: (1) the mentor plans an enrichment project prior to meeting pupils and identifies a topic or area of personal expertise, writes a proposal for a pupil's learning experience, complete with a project culminating in a class presentation matching the mentor and a pupil interested in the same topic; (2) the mentor and pupil discuss the project and jointly agree to work together and plan a schedule of learning activities and a completion date for the project; (3) the mentor prepares material for each pupil meeting, providing an active learning experience which leads to the project's completion and the pupil's class presentation; and, finally, (4) the pupil presents project materials to classmates.

After assessing the program, the author finds that pupils in the MAEP program use more community resources and people in the work force, rate the quality of their independent projects more highly, prefer MAEP to self-directed enrichment projects, and are motivated to do their homework and show up for scheduled meetings with their mentors prepared to do what has been planned.

The author includes a list of "shoulds" and "cautions" for potential mentors.

Gray, W.A., & Gray, M.M. (Eds.). (1986). *Mentoring: Aid to excellence in career development, business, and the professions.* Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring (Vols. I and II). Vancouver, BC: International Association for Mentoring.

This two-volume set comprises the proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring. It contains papers that describe how mentoring is conceptualized, applied, and researched in different ways and situations, and for different purposes. A brief abstract, a list of references, and illustrative figures, charts and graphs accompany each paper.

Volume I focuses primarily on mentoring as it pertains to education at all levels, and to a lesser extent, to the family and to the community. Volume II focuses on mentoring as it pertains to career development, to business, and to the professions.

Volume I, "Mentoring: Aid to Excellence in Education, the Family and the Community," contains four parts. Part I, "Mentoring: Aid to Personal Development and Career Awareness," comprises the following papers: (1) "A Search for Ideal Types in Mentoring" (Patricia A. Haensly; Elaine P. Edlind); (2) "Communication Is the Key: You Can Do It But Can You Say It!" (Allan Rupnow; Sandy Bowton); (3) "Mentoring for High School Students" (Donald R. Davis); (4) "A Mentoring Experience in the South Bronx: A Successful Strategy for Conducting an Inner-City Mentoring Program" (Patricia R. Lanier); (5) "British Columbia Mentorship Program Pilot Project: Model for a Province-Wide Program" (Cobina G. Herrington; Lisa G. Harney); (6) "Establishing a Mentoring Dialog with a Campus School" (Natalie A. Silverstein); (7) "Student Mentoring: A Collaborative Approach to the School Dropout Problem" (Hope B. Richardson); and (8) "Linking Career Role Models with Minority Young Women" (Bonnie J. Faddis).

Part 2, "Mentoring in Higher Education," comprises the following papers: (1) "Mentoring in Teaching a University Psychology Course" (Richard Jackson Harris; Carrie L. Brewer); (2) "Characteristics of Mentor Teachers' Mentor-Protege Relationships" (James B. Egan); (3) "Building Effective Professional Adult Education Mentoring" (Marsha Appel; Tom Trail); and (4) "Model Alumni Career Programs in Higher Education" (Robert Jarmick; Tom Trail).

Part 3, "Mentoring in Teachers' and Principals' Development," comprises the following papers: (1) "The Mentor and Beginning Teacher's Differing Relationship Within Five Paradigms of Teacher Induction Programs" (Ian H. Andrews); (2) "Mentoring Under Stress: The Case of Teacher Education" (Laurens Kortweg); (3) "Teachers Meeting Needs of Colleagues: Kern High School District's Mentor Teacher Program" (Marilyn George); (4) "Mentoring in Small School Districts in California" (Edward F. Gilligan); (5) "Mentor Teachers in Selected Districts in Northern California: Profile, Selection, and Responsibilities" (Sarah E. Taylor); (6) "From Master Teacher to Mentor: Mentor/New Teacher Project" (Susan Reimer Sacks; Katherine Knight Wilcox); and (7) "Mentoring in Principalship Education" (Soo Peck Eng).

Part 4, "Mentoring Gifted/Talented/Creative Students in Varied Settings," comprises the following papers: (1) "Preschool Children and Mentors" (Calee Jenke); (2) "Case Stories in Mentoring" (Eleanor M. Schatz); (3) "Starting From Scratch: The Victorian (Australia) Mentoring Experience, 1982-1986" (Ross Wenn); (4) "Mentoring the Creative Child, Adult and Prodigy: Current Knowledge, Systems and Research" (Michael F. Shaughnessy); (5) "Mentor Connection: An Advanced Course Offering for High School Students" (Linda Silrum; Jeanie Pullen); (6) "Some Evaluative Feedback on a Mentoring Program of Educational Enrichment" (Joanne M. Deppeler); (7) "Mentoring and the Gifted: A Maryland State Department of Education Model" (Antoinette Favazza Wiegand; John L. Brown); and (8) "Mentor-Assisted Enrichment Projects: A Proven Way of Carrying Out Type III Triad Projects and of Promoting Higher-Level Thinking in GTC Student-Proteges" (Marilynne Miles Gray; William A. Gray).

Volume II, "Mentoring: Aid to Excellence in Career Development, Business and the Professions," also contains four parts. Part 1, "Conceptualizing, Developing, and Researching Mentoring Relationships," comprises the following papers: (1) "The Mentoring Mosaic: A New Theory of Mentoring" (Lu Ann W. Darling); (2) "Formal vs. Informal Mentoring: Towards a Framework" (David M. Hunt); (3) "Components For Developing a Successful/formalized Mentoring Program in Business, the Professions, and Other Settings" (William A. Gray); (4) "Do Formal Mentoring Programs Really Mentor?" (M. Michael Fagan); (5) "Measuring Mentoring--Frequency, Quality, Impact" (Elizabeth Alleman); and (6) "New Directions For Research" (Audrey Collin).

Part 2, "A Focus on the Mentor-Protege Relationship and Its Outcomes" comprises the following papers: (1) "Dual Perspectives of a Mentoring Relationship" (Joan Harrision; Gordon J. Klopf); (2) "Mentors For Female University Administrators: Spouses Identified" (Ruth D. Atteberry); (3) "Impact of Race on Mentoring Relationships" (Elizabeth Alleman); (4) "Personal Transformation of the Protege: The Mentoring Relationship as a Context" (Claire L. Winstone); (5) "The Role of the Mentor in the Experience of Change" (Audrey Collin); (6) "Chemistry, Contingency Theory, and Interpersonal Learning: A Theory of Developmental Relationships in Organizations" (James G. Clawson); and (7) "Does it Have to End Badly: Alternative Outcomes and First Aid for Troubled Mentoring Relationships" (Joan S. Harrison).

Part 3, "Career-Oriented Applications of Formal an Informal Mentoring," comprises the following papers: (1) "Career Success Through Mentoring: A Workshop Series" (Cobina G. Herrington; Lisa G. Harney); (2) "Mentoring Student Business Projects" (William A. Preshing); (3) "Mentoring and Achievement Motivation as Predictors of Career Success" (Jerald L. Wilbur); (5) "Only the Beginning: Five Major Trends That Signal the Growth of Corporate Formal Mentoring Programs" (Michael G. Zey); (6) "The Role of Mentors in the Professional Development of Nurses: A Comparative Study" (Babette Marquardt Hess); (7) "Mentoring Among Nurse Administrators" (Alison J. Taylor); (8) "The Role of Mentorship in the Leadership Development of Nurse-Influentials" (Connie Vance); and (9) "A Study of the Advantages, Disadvantages and Outcomes to the Recipients of Helping Relationships" (Elizabeth B. Bolton).

Gray, W.A. & Gray, M.M. (1985, November). Synthesis of research on mentoring teachers. *Educational Leadership, 43* (5), 37-43.

The authors examine mentoring research on teachers and characterize good mentors as persons who are people-oriented; able to tolerate ambiguity; prefer abstract concepts; value company and work; respect and like subordinates; are confident, secure, flexible, altruistic, warm, and caring; are sensitive to a protege's needs; and trust proteges.

They categorize mentors as "primary": going out of their way for mentees, sharing power, and taking a personal interest in mentees; and "secondary:" showing less personal caring for mentees and being more business-like. Career functions of mentors are described as exposing, protecting, and challenging protegees to new opportunities, and acting as coach and sponsor. The authors' four psychosocial functions of a mentor are seen as role model, counsel, accepting-confirming, and being a friend to the mentee.

Mentor roles are described as teacher, confidant, role model, developer of talents, sponsor, door-opener, protector, and successful leader. Mentors interested in proteges are described as helpful, caring, willing to take time, dedicated, friendly, outgoing, patient, influential, and professional role models. Mentor functions and roles are seen as role model, instructor and promoter of thinking skills, demonstrator and teacher, motivator and promoter of realistic values, and supervisor.

Mentoring programs are described as having four phases: (1) selecting and matching mentor and protege pairs; (2) providing necessary training for the process; (3) monitoring the ongoing mentoring process; and (4) preparing a quantitative and qualitative year-end summative evaluation.

Hunt, D.M. (1986). Formal vs. informal mentoring: Towards a framework. In W.A. Gray & M.M. Gray (Eds.), *Mentoring: Aid to excellence in career development, business and the professions*, pp. 8-14. Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring (Vol. II). Vancouver, BC: International Association for Mentoring.

This paper looks at formal or planned mentoring versus traditional or informal mentoring. The author suggests that mentoring is historically and traditionally an informal process linking senior and junior members of profession and organizations. Mentors pass skills on to their proteges, awake proteges politically, guide, counsel, cajole, and reprimand proteges, while simultaneously basking in the glow of the proteges' success. Further, proteges try to succeed, often as much for their mentors as for themselves, and only then remotely for their organizations.

The author examines formal organizational mentoring programs that train and develop "shining stars" for future top-level organizational positions. Whether organization goals are skills training, counseling, promotion, or all three, the author suggests that success or failure of mentoring programs must be evaluated in terms of both organization and participant benefits and negative impacts.

The author includes a checklist of mentoring with key characteristics of planned mentoring, which include the mentoring context; goal focus for both individuals and organizations, selection and matching of mentors and proteges; relationship stages - including the apprentice or initiation stage, protege stage, and breakup stage, all lasting for a total of six months to two years; and outcomes. Also included is a typology of advisor/supportive relationships for planned mentoring.

Hunt, D.M., & Michael, C. (1983). Mentorship: A career training and development tool. *Academy of Management Review, 8* (3), 475-8.

The authors review the available mentoring literature and present a framework for a career training and development mentor-protege model. The framework provides a context of the mentor-protege relationship, the gender of the role partners in the mentor-protege relationship, and positive and negative outcomes accruing to the mentor, protege, and organization where this relationship occurs.

More specifically, the authors' context for a mentoring relationship includes the work setting; organizational characteristics; the individual's occupation, profession, and position; and interpersonal relationships or social networks. These contextual factors affect both mentor and protege characteristics. Mentor characteristics in turn consist of the age differential between the mentor and protege, gender, organizational position, power, and self-confidence. In turn, the protege's characteristics that are contextually affected are age, gender, and personal need for power.

Once these factors have been meshed, the mentor-protege relationship proceeds through the following four stages: (1) the initiation stage; (2) the protege stage; (3) breakup; and (4) lasting friendship. During the initiation stage the mentoring relationship begins with mentors and proteges identifying each other and the roles they will play in the relationship. In the protege stage, the proteges become the mentors' apprentice, learning and developing their skills while being protected by their mentor. In the breakup stage there is a significant change in the structural role of the mentoring relationship. Proteges move into a position more equal to the mentors', with mentors either accepting or rejecting proteges as peers, sometimes with stormy results. The final stage, lasting friendship, occurs after a period of separation followed by reestablishment of contact and a peer-like friendship with equal status.

Jones-Phillips, L. (1983). Establishing a formalized mentoring program. *Training and Development Journal, 37* (2), 38, 40-42.

This article discusses critical features for a formalized mentoring program, and asserts that the evidence in public and private sectors is that mentoring programs work.

The author presents, but does not describe in detail, critical features for a formalized mentoring program: (1) ensuring that top management supports the mentoring program at the onset; (2) making the mentoring program part of a larger career development or management training effort; (3) insisting on voluntary participation; (4) keeping each phase of the mentoring program relatively short, approximately six months; (5) selecting mentors and mentees carefully; (6) providing an orientation for mentors and mentees; (7) allowing mentors "structured flexibility"; (8) being prepared for possible challenges; and (9) building in a monitoring system.

Formalized corporate and business mentoring programs of the following business institutions are cited as successful examples: the Internal Revenue Service (IRS); Federal Executive Development Program, Presidential Management Intern Program, and Science and Education Administration within U.S. Department of Agriculture; Jewel Companies; American Telephone and Telegraph's Bell Laboratories; Glendale (California) Federal Savings and Loan; Hughes Aircraft; and Merrill Lynch.

Klopf, G.J., & Harrison, J.S. (1982). *Mentoring*. New York, NY: Center for Leadership Development, Bank Street College.

The authors see the mentor function as a model with the mentor emulating a sponsor/patron who supports and facilitates the mentee's development. The sponsor/patron is an advisor conveying information and options to the mentee. The mentor is also a teacher, instructor, trainer, and counselor who enables the mentee to self-actualize. Mentors possess talents, status, and competence; invest positive non-competitive effort and respect in their mentees; trust and care for their mentees; help their mentees clarify, develop, and pursue their "life's dream"; set standards of performance for mentees; extend themselves on behalf of mentees; help mentees assess strengths and needs; encourage mentees to take risks and learn from mistakes; are trusting; and share themselves with their mentee.

Mentoring relationships vary with same sex or cross-gender mentors and mentees, although most documented relationships occur between male mentors and male mentees. Chronological patterns of mentor relationships vary; the typical pattern seen by the authors was an age difference of eight to fifteen years, with the nature of the relationship more important than the age of the parties involved. Mentoring relationships last anywhere from a few months to twenty years or more, with the average between two and eight years. Relationships are usually initiated from mentor to mentee, but can occur from mentee to mentor.

According to the authors, mentoring provides important satisfactions for both the mentor and mentee, with their interaction occurring in social systems, organizations, institutions, and networks. The authors' brief mention of both mutual benefits and the occurrence of mentoring in social systems, networks, etc., is worth noting. It provides an important clue to the all-encompassing occurrence and functions of mentoring which take place in many situations.

Kram, K.E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life.* Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

This book defines the mentoring phenomena as a "relationship between a young adult and an older more experienced adult that helps the younger individual learn to navigate in the adult world and the world of work." Rather than limit herself to the classic definition of a mentor relationship, the author considers mentoring a range of possible adult relationships that provide developmental functions for an individual's career development, in a work setting. The author tries to avoid using the word "mentor," with the explanation that the popular press has over-simplified the complex web of work relationships that exist and are available in most work settings.

Mentoring, or developmental relationships (as the author prefers to say), has two particular functions: career functions which enhance career advancement; and psychosocial functions which enhance an individual's sense of competence, identity, and effectiveness in a professional role. These functions appear throughout four developmental relationship phases: initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. The four phases occur throughout an individual's career stages: early career life, mid career life, and late career life.

The author's research is comprised of two studies which examine relationships between junior and senior managers in one particular corporate setting. A series of in-depth qualitative interviews is the data source. Study participants were selected randomly from existing developmental relationships. According to the author, interview structure evolved during the course of data collection.

Data analysis consists of an inductive process in which tentative hypotheses concerning the nature of developmental relationships are suggested and reviewed as data collection proceeds. Study results yield a list of categories and themes that recur across the eighteen developmental relationships studied, which the author uses to explain the functions, phases, and career stages of these developmental relationships. In addition to these categories and themes, the author also discusses cross gender relationships, conditions that encourage mentoring, and misconceptions about mentoring as popularized by the current press.

Kram, K.E., & Isabella, L.A. (1985). Mentoring alternatives: The role of peer relationships in career development. *Academy of Management Journal, 20* (1), 110-32.

The authors identify types of peer relationships and enhancing functions that relationships provide, and review the manner in which relationships support psychosocial and career development at various career stages for individuals. They see mentors as persons who: provide young adults with career enhancing functions such as sponsorship and coaching, facilitate the mentees' exposure and visibility, and offer challenging work and/or protection, all of which help the younger person establish an organizational role, learn organizational norms, and prepare for advancement. In terms of psychosocial development, the mentor is a role model, counselor, confirmer, and friend, helping the young adult develop a sense of professional identity and competence.

On the other hand, peer relationships offer alternative developmental opportunities within organizations. The authors see three types of peer relationships: (1) information peers; (2) collegial peers; and (3) special peers. These three types of peer relationships appear throughout an individual's four career phases: career establishment, advancement, and middle and late careers.

For their research, the authors asked three questions: (1) for what purposes do individuals form and maintain peer relationships; (2) can distinctive kinds of peer relationships be identified; and (3) what are the functions of peer relationships at different career phases. A series of two structured interviews were used to obtain information about peer relationships from three subject age groups: 25-35, 36-45, and 46-65. Equal numbers of male and female subjects were used. Organizational tenure and willingness to participate were the final criteria for subject selection. Subjects meeting these criteria were then randomly selected from each age group.

Study of one organizational setting indicates that peer relationships offer an important alternative to conventional mentoring relationships by providing a range of developmental supports for personal and professional growth at various career stages. The authors identify a variety of career-enhancing functions similar to those found in mentoring relationships, and indicate that there are different types of peer relationships which may be modified and shaped by age and career concerns of both individuals.

The authors suggest there are a variety of peer relationships, information peers, collegial peers, and special peers, all of which support individual development of successive career stages. Each type of relationship offers ranges of opportunities for growth. Some functions resemble mentoring relationships; however, greater reciprocity and mutuality is involved.

The authors assert that their study indicates that mentoring and peer relationships have several common attributes with the potential to support development at successive career stages and to provide career-enhancing and psychosocial functions. They state that peer relationships offer unique developmental opportunities that should not be overlooked or underestimated.

Merriam, S. (1983, Spring). Mentors and proteges: A critical review of the literature. *Adult Education Quarterly, 33* (3), 161-73.

The author asserts that mentoring is a "hot topic" in business and other literature, with many articles implying that life success is directly connected to either having or being a mentor. Available popular literature describes mentoring as a key to career and academic success, and as a necessary ingredient in psychosocial development, women in particular are urged to acquire a mentor. This, one of the earlier mentoring articles, evaluates whether the enthusiasm of the popular literature is substantiated by research.

Mentoring literature considered here comes from three disciplines: (1) psychology (adult growth and development), (2) business, and (3) education (academic settings), and takes place on either formal or informal levels. The author found no precise definition of mentoring within the literature; the meaning of the mentor/mentoring was defined by the scope of particular research investigations or the setting where it occurs.

In terms of adult development literature, the author suggests that the finding that a lack of mentoring results in stunted psychosocial growth is premature. While the "best" mentored outcomes in previous research involve mentors, some of the "worst" mentor outcomes are highly successful by most standards and are ignored, leaving such findings suspect.

Business mentoring studies vary enormously and are heavily biased in favor of mentoring. Differing definitions of mentoring, methodologies, and lack of general empirical data from study to study contribute to the wide variation in results.

In academic settings mentoring studies range from linking self-actualization of scientists with mentoring to delineating critical requirements of a mentor in order to plan in-service training, to surveying women administrators.

The author's criticisms of the literature in general are: that mentoring is not clearly conceptualized and confuses what is measured or offered as success ingredients; that research designs in the mentoring literature are unsophisticated and tend to be testimonials to the benefits of mentors, or "how to" articles on finding or being a mentor; that the negative impacts of mentoring relationships are ignored in the literature; and that formal mentoring programs established in businesses and higher education institutions are not well evaluated before conclusions on their value are drawn.

Merriam, S.B., & Thomas, T.K. (1986). The role in the career development of community college presidents. *Community/Junior College Quarterly of Research and Practice, 10* (3), 177-91.

This study uses twenty in-depth interviews conducted with randomly selected male community college presidents to assess the role of mentors in career development. Mentors are described as individuals who offer advice, counsel, and informal career assistance; help individuals through tough times; and fill the roles of coach, advisor, counselor, teacher, and "Dutch uncle." Mentor relationships occur in work settings with mentors as superiors.

Study subjects use the term mentor to refer to a person or person-centered activity, with some persons indicating inanimate referents such as dissertation topics, institutions, and books serving as their mentors. Of animate mentors, respondents identify their father, graduate school advisor, or persons in their work setting as important to their rise in the organizational hierarchy.

Study results find mentors, whether animate or inanimate, with four major functions: modeling, facilitating, teaching, and encouraging. Mentors frequently teach and encourage mentees, providing experiences testing or stretching the mentees' abilities. Role modeling, seen by the authors as the least directive form of mentoring, provides opportunities for mentee observation of mentor behavior worth emulating.

Mentors provide the following functions: facilitating their protege's career by arranging conditions which allow the protege to experience situations; encouraging the mentee to face new challenges; arranging situations that encourage the mentee to learn; and actively passing on accumulated wisdom through lessons designed to teach the protege to handle new situations.

The mentoring cycle has four states: initiation, duration, termination, and assumption of a top leadership role. Initiation occurs with selection of the mentee by the mentor, or selection by the mentee of an older, trusted person to serve as mentor. This dual selection process pivots on the willingness of the mentor to assist a mentee who realizes there are benefits to being mentored. There is no set length of time or duration for mentor/mentee relationship to exist.

Termination of the mentoring relationship occurs in a slow, gradual manner when the mentee leaves the mentor's "sphere of influence" or when the mentee no longer needs the mentor. With assumption of a top leadership role, peers then serve in mentoring capacities. Study participants said that selection by a mentor(s) was a significant factor in their present day success and has afforded them an opportunity to learn vital skills.

Nieva, V.F., & Gutek, B. (1981). *Women and work: A psychological perspective*. New York, NY: Praeger, pp. 57-59.

In a brief section of their book the authors describe mentoring as general social networks through which individuals are assimilated into a system. Mentees are trained, developed, and given special advice, inside information, critical experiences, and social status through association with a mentor. Mentors provide access to information and contacts; act as a sponsor and role model; provide crucial guidance for behavior, attitudes, and aspirations; assure that the mentee is properly groomed, advised, and cared for; guide the mentee through steps to organizational membership; and provide hierarchical bypasses through informal interactions.

The authors note that women are rarely sponsored in this manner and that the protege is often the mentor's most likely successor and potential peer. Frequent female tokenism occurs, as male mentors assume women lack career commitment and drive. Women are brought into male networks to a limited degree, provided with attention, rewards, and credentials unavailable to other women, and thereby are increasingly distanced from remaining women in the work place. The mentoring process provides special treatment for some females while increasing their distance from the wider female condition, and increases their identification with the dominant male group.

This article sees tokenism as a salve to the mentor's conscience, permitting the maintenance of a progressive egalitarian self-image while conditions for the subordinate female class are kept at the same level, and providing the appearance of access to recognition and reward to truly deserving women while maintaining a discriminatory reward system. Tokenism restricts non-dominant group members while it allows inclusion in a limited way for a limited number of non-dominant group members. Token restrictions are typically covert, veiled by promises of general mobility advertised inherently by the mentor/mentee relationship.

Noe, R.A. (1988). Women and mentoring: A review and research agenda. *Academy of Management Review, 13* (1), 65-78.

The author makes the opening statement that women do not understand the realities of male-dominated business cultures and as a result do not acquire the necessary sponsorship which identifies them as highly talented and directs their career advancement. The number of women seeking management positions are increasing because greater numbers of women are entering the labor force, because they have increased access to educational and employment opportunities, and because of affirmative action programs.

Although the number of women in the work force is rising, mentoring relationships for females are not proportionally increasing. Failure to identify and utilize talented women typically results in organizational failure to meet equal employment opportunity or affirmative action goals. The implication here is that the purpose of a formal mentoring experience is to meet corporate affirmative action goals.

A mentor is seen as an experienced, productive manager who relates well to less-experienced employees; who facilitates a mentee's development for individual and organizational benefit; and who is eight to fifteen years older than the mentee, a young professional with high career aspirations. The mentor relationship is initiated when the mentee attracts the attention of the mentor through outstanding job performance, or the mentee seeks a more experienced organizational member. Successful formal mentoring programs are characterized by top management support, careful selection of mentors and proteges, extensive orientation programs emphasizing realistic relationship expectations, clearly stated responsibilities for both the mentor and protege, and an established minimum duration and frequency of contact between the mentor and protege.

When discussing women's career development, the author says that later career selection, more frequent career interruptions, and fewer advancement opportunities complicate women's career development, and that mentoring helps women develop their career plans and acquire a self-identity.

Barriers to establishing cross gender mentorships are a lack of access to information networks, tokenism, stereotyping, existing socialization practices, norms regarding cross gender relationships, and reliance on inappropriate power bases. These barriers result in such adverse consequences as poor job performance resulting from limited opportunities to develop interpersonal and task-oriented skills, fewer women promoted to supervisory positions, and a perpetuation of the lack of role models and female mentors. Mentoring programs also may produce disparate treatment if women are assigned to ineffective or powerless mentors.

Oestereicher, M. (1987, Fall). Effectiveness of peer tutor/mentors for disadvantaged students at Brooklyn College: Preliminary analyses. *Linkages: Perspectives for Special Programs, 5* (1), 27-31.

The author considers whether formal mentoring programs, using peer relationships for disadvantaged students to improve academic performance and stem attrition, are effective. The author sees the mentor's role as introducing novices to new surroundings, guiding their work, providing advice, introducing students to other persons and resources, and being an intermediary between mentees and their school.

Peer mentoring merges academic and social integration, developing relationships between the mentor and mentee, and among students under the guidance of their mentor. The mentor is a role model in study and communication skills, and an intermediary between the student and the goal of successful course work. The author believes that mentoring produces positive effects on the college career of disadvantaged students as reflected in course grades, subsequent academic performance, and study habits and attitudes.

For a study conducted by the author, student subjects were selected randomly from class assignments of three courses, and assigned to experimental and control groups. Mentors were provided only to students in the experimental group. Results of the study show that course grades for mentored students demonstrate some improvement. However, the author's research design did not include consideration of each student's academic abilities when assignment of student subjects to control and experimental groups took place. Therefore, the author's positive conclusions about mentoring leaves study results open to question.

Orth, C.D., Wilkinson, H.E., & Benfaril, R.C. (1987, Spring). The manager's role as coach and mentor. *Organizational Dynamics, 15*, 66-75.

The authors see the mentor role as an integral part of an organizational manager's job - in essence developing employees while supervising. Helping employees expands their capabilities and gives managers more time to improve their own performance while simultaneously building a reputation for developing employees and enhancing their chances for upward organizational mobility. In addition, managers create a lasting powerbase which is achieved through mutually beneficial relationships with employees who have been helped.

The authors describe mentors/managers as management persons who develop their employees through coaching skills, but do not describe these skills. They speculate that organizational managers who adopt a coaching style will create an organizational culture consisting of stronger management teams at all levels; enhanced management performance; a less stressful environment for all employees; less competition among personnel; teamwork and mutual support; and reduced power struggles and infighting, with competition directed outward instead of within organization.

The authors recommend that mentors function as coaches rather than as evaluators. Mentors must temporarily suspend judgment, listen empathetically, probe for concerns related to employee self-assessment, and be ready to offer specific suggestions regarding training and self-development opportunities that help employees achieve their own goals as well as the organization's objectives. Mentors are cautioned that they must never threaten or imply a threat to an employee. They must maintain a positive relationship with the employee and develop trust and a sincere interest in the employee with open two-way communications. The mentor's coaching sessions must not be interrupted or distracted. The mentor and employee must respect each other's job abilities. The employee must clearly recognize the mentor as a coach and not an evaluator. Four critical skills for manager/coaches are observational skills; analytical skills; interviewing skills; and feedback skills.

Pavan, B.N. (1987, Winter). Mentoring Certified Aspiring and Incumbent Female and Male Public School Administrators. *Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 7* (4), 318-331.

This article looks at mentors and the mentoring experience in the context of women in educational leadership positions. The author presents a catalogue of 21 mentoring functions, with two sub-categories of career and psychosocial functions.

The author administered a survey questionnaire to a random sample of males and females with certificates for administrative jobs: elementary principal, secondary principal, assistant superintendent, and superintendent. Survey respondents were divided into two categories--incumbent job holders or aspirants; they were also divided by sex, resulting in 16 sub-populations. Nearly all survey respondents were white, with only 5.6% black. The survey questionnaire was a four-page instrument probing personal characteristics, career pathways, job search strategies, time usage, mentors and their functions.

Aspirants to jobs were younger than incumbents of jobs. A lower percentage of aspirants than incumbents of the same sex in same the position reported having mentors. Females were as likely to mentor males as females; however, males were much more likely to mentor males than females. The most frequently reported role for mentors was superintendent.

In addition, respondents ranked how helpful to their career development they perceived career and psychosocial mentoring functions to be. Female superintendents, female assistant superintendents, female secondary principals, and male assistant superintendents perceived career mentoring functions as most helpful. When mentoring functions were combined, psychosocial functions were rated higher than career functions; the top five were: support and encouragement, enhancement of self-confidence, friendship (psychosocial), sponsorship, and provision of necessary information (career).

Functions considered to be least helpful were: career functions which arrange access to administrators and administrative experience; provision of protection and advice on salary negotiations; and the psychosocial function of facilitating moves from the classroom. Women reported having mentors as frequently as men; however, the author concluded that mentoring functions were more helpful to women than men.

Rodriguez Rodriguez, R. (1986). *Effects of two counseling approaches on institutional integration and persistence of high risk college students.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Fordham University, New York. (University Microfilms No. 86-16827)

This dissertation examined the effects of two counseling approaches, referred to as mentor counseling and traditional counseling, on the degree of social integration, academic integration, goal commitment, and institutional commitment of first year, high risk college students. The author asks if there are differences in the: (1) social integration of students in mentoring counseling programs versus traditional counseling; (2) academic integration of students participating in the two different counseling programs; (3) student goal; and (4) student institutional commitment.

Independent variables in this study were the two counseling approaches. Mentoring counseling used an activist approach to student counseling. Each student was assigned to a faculty member for systematic counseling or advising. Mentors ensured that students received assistance and made full use of college services, resources, and facilities. The mentoring process involved the following: the student was assigned to a mentor; the student's academic, personal, and vocational needs were assessed; the student visited the mentor every fifteen days or so for academic, personal and vocational counseling; and the mentor followed up on the student's academic progress. The traditional counseling approach involved typical counseling services offered to all students of the institution.

Students assigned to a regular counselor received academic, vocational, and personal assistance and advice: however, students must initiate requests for help. The traditional counseling process involved the following: students were assigned to a counselor; the student's academic, personal, and vocational needs were assessed; and the student initiated a visit to the counselor's office when necessary. No specific follow-up occured to check on the student's academic progress. The four dependent variables the author used in this study were social integration, academic integration, goal commitment, and institutional commitment.

The author found that the mentoring program had a stronger positive effect on the social and academic integration, and on the goals and institutional commitment of students in mentoring counseling groups. No significant difference was found in the means of the social and academic integration, and goals and institutional commitments between male and female students. Students in the mentoring counseling program received more frequent counseling. No significant difference was found between the two groups for vocational counseling received, or between the two treatment groups for re-enrollment rates at the institution. The author includes suggestions for further research.

Schockett, M., & Haring-Hildore, M. (1985). Factor analytic support for psychosocial and vocational mentoring functions. *Psychological Reports, 57*, 627-630.

This research uses the authors' previous mentoring model with eight mentor functions, four psychosocial and four vocational, to explore mentoring. The four psychosocial functions are role modeling, encouragement, counseling, and transitional figure. The four vocational functions are educating, consulting/coaching, sponsoring, and protecting. The author describes factor analysis done to determine whether mentoring functions cluster into psychosocial and vocational factors.

The research used 72 male and 72 female subjects randomly selected from students enrolled in a junior-level course on career assessment for education majors. Most were Caucasian (68%), undergraduates (82%), with a mean age of 26 years. Subjects rated the desirability of mentoring assistance from one to seven from four vignettes portraying psychosocial functions and four vignettes portraying vocational functions. Study results support the authors' previous mentoring model which used both psychosocial and vocational mentoring functions. The authors noted that study replication is needed with working adults and persons in a wide range of fields for results of this study to be generalizable.

Shapiro, E.C., Haseltine, F.P., & Rowe, M.P. (1978). Moving up: Role models, mentors, and the "patron system." *Sloan Management Review, 19* (3), 51-8.

The authors examined female role models and emphasis on role models and mentors as prerequisites for women's success. They made three key points: (1) that role models are of limited effectiveness in assisting women to gain positions of leadership, authority, or power; (2) that the concept of "mentor" is at one end of a spectrum of individuals in advisory or support roles facilitating entry and mobility for proteges; and (3) that women often lack mentors or sponsors who can be instrumental in their career advancements. The authors examined the limitations of role model concepts in relation to professional mobility, and suggest a continuum of advisory support personae ranging from mentors to peer pals.

The authors' argument is that although female role models can be helpful to aspiring women professionals, they should not be viewed as a panacea for women's advancement, contrary to popular assumptions. They argue further that the search for a role model uniquely representing the ideal woman professional is destructive, placing the mentee in a hopeless search and the would-be role model in a prison of unattainable expectations.

The authors suggest it is more useful to think in terms of multiple partial role models and that a continuum of patron relationships leads to better focused and more effective efforts to bring women into positions of leadership, authority, and power. Rather than using code words such as role model or mentor as requisites for women professionals, they urge examination of the implications of these terms so that more thoughtful solutions can be developed.

Speizer, J.J. (1981, Summer). Role models, mentors, and sponsors: The elusive concepts. *Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 6* (4), 692-712.

This article notes that the notion of role model, mentor, or sponsor is both accepted as a prerequisite for success and self-evident. Through analysis of previous research efforts, the author considers whether the validity of this prerequisite has been demonstrated; if role models and mentors are critical to professional advancement; and if the public's "fascination" with mentors is more a rationalization for women's lack of professional progress.

The term "role model" is based on developmental theories of identification and modeling in childhood, social learning theory, and cognitive development theory, with studies of role models focusing on children and parental models. The author notes that results of various studies are ambiguous with variations in findings, and a wide range of results.

A mentor or sponsor is defined as an older person in an organization or profession who takes a younger colleague under his or her wing and encourages or supports the protege's career progress until approximately mid-life.

Most previously collected data about mentors used surveys or interviews with professionals who recalled persons who mentored them. Study findings were based predominately on male business executives' experiences, but were applied to women as well in the belief that women must also acquire mentors.

The author says that problems with both role model research and sponsor/mentor research are that research needs to be more methodologically sound; sample sizes are often too small to allow generalizable findings; data and information collected are completely retrospective, creating reliability problems; and multiple mentor/sponsor concepts are unclear at best.

Interest in mentors came primarily from the business community where mentors are thought to be older, successful, male executives. No studies exploring mentor relationships for other groups, or ongoing relationships, were followed to determine the benefits to mentors or mentees. The author notes that more research is needed to document the hypothesized link between mentors and professional success. Detailed charts cataloging both mentor and role model research are included.

Torrance, E.P. (1983). Role of mentors in creative achievement. *The Creative Child and Adult Quarterly, 8* (1), 8-18.

The author asserts the importance of mentoring in creative achievement based on an analysis of biographies and autobiographies of high achieving/creative people and psychometric studies of eminent scientists. Previous studies did not use "having a mentor" as a statistical predictor of creative achievement and did not seek to empirically study the characteristics, functions, development, termination, and persistence of mentor relationships.

Wherever independence and creativity occurs, a sponsor or patron exists. The role of sponsor or patron is typically played by someone possessing prestige and power in the mentee's social system, and by someone other than a member of the mentee's peer group. The mentor role includes: encouraging and supporting the mentee to express and test ideas; protecting the mentee's peer and superiors' reactions long enough for the mentee to test and modify ideas; and keeping the mentee's situation structures open long enough for the mentee's originality to occur and persist.

The author's 22-year longitudinal study asks subjects about mentor experiences. The study began in 1958-1964 when pupils, enrolled in grades one through six in two Minnesota elementary schools, were administered batteries of tests. The 1979-1980 follow-up data of adolescent and adult creative behavior were obtained from 220 of 400 subjects originally tested. Data were collected concerning educational experiences, obstacles to achievement, and frustrations. Levels of satisfaction in 12 aspects of life (work, recognition, challenge, income, marital status, children, leisure activities, friendships, community involvement, opportunity for independent action, creative output, and joy in living), were rated, and statements about dreams for the future were recorded.

Study results indicate that 40 males and 57 females had mentors, correlating significantly for four criteria of adult creative achievement: quality of highest adult creative achievements; creativeness of future career image; number of recognized creative achievements; and number of creative style of life achievements. Mentees completed higher levels of education than did non-mentored peers; however, mentees demonstrated no greater life satisfaction. Few male subjects had female mentors while over half the female subjects had male mentors.

Mentors were typically the mentee's professors, employers, or experienced persons in the mentee's occupation. Females tended to value encouragement and praise received from mentors while males valued the career, business, and the professional expertise of their mentors. Over half the subjects who said they had a mentor continued to maintain the mentor relationship.

Yoder, J.D., Adams, J., Grove, S., & Priest, R.F. (1985, June). To teach is to learn: Overcoming tokenism with mentors. *Mentoring of Women Quarterly, 9* (1), 119-131.

This study examined the first two West Point classes containing women to ascertain why women cadets do not sponsor incoming women, and to study situational contingencies which make women in token roles reluctant to sponsor subsequent incoming female cadets. This study defines a mentor as: a model to emulate, a person who gets involved with the nitty-gritty details of the mentee's socialization and development, and someone at work who takes a personal interest in the mentee's career and acts as a guide or sponsor. Male officers seen as mentors are humorously referred to as "fairy godfathers."

Structured interviews are used for this four-year longitudinal study. The authors note that West Point's fraternization policy constrains but does not preclude the existence of mentor relationships. The policy specifically forbids plebe (freshmen) women from initiating mentor relationships, but does not forbid development of a mentor relationship initiated by a senior individual. A "proper relationship" is defined as: (1) providing channels of effective communication and control; (2) fostering trust and respect between individuals; (3) developing unit cohesiveness, esprit, and camaraderie; (4) facilitating development of the subordinate; (5) maintaining responsiveness to legitimate authority; and (6) preserving the differing status levels of seniors and subordinates.

Tokenism for women at West Point includes: performance pressures, role encapsulation, uncertainty; marginal peer acceptance, and specialness. The authors argue that failure of upperclass cadet women to sponsor incoming women is the result of situational pressures exerted on women who fill and succeed in a token role, and manage situational constraints.

The authors conclude that: females in token roles experience enormous organizational stress; the women are perceived to be lower in both the role of team player and informational and expert power, making them inadequate mentors; dominant males are uncertain about how to deal with different unknown token women; major differences between dominants and tokens is a hard-earned yet marginal and constantly questioned peer acceptance that initiated women earn from the dominant group; and upperclass women worry that sponsoring incoming females will jeopardize the common bonds they have achieved with male peers and also the "specialness" that makes them visible as the first women at the Academy.

Zey, M.G. (1985, February). Mentor programs: Making the right moves. *Personnel Journal, 64* (2), 53-7.

This article discusses the benefits of formal mentor programs, and implementation considerations of such programs. Corporate mentoring programs: foster the growth of relationships between junior and senior managers; are a major component of management and professional training functions; ensure the extension of mentoring to groups that have the most difficult time finding mentors, specifically women and minorities; and meet affirmative action mandates.

Employee benefits include managerial and professional development; and informal training with the mentor who passes along technical and personal skills, corporate culture, and the values and expectations of the corporation to the mentee. The author suggests that proteges must have a mentor in order to develop into a full-fledged manager or professional.

When considering implementing a formal mentoring program the corporation should establish: (1) who will be allowed to participate; (2) how the mentor and mentee will be matched; (3) how long the program will be; (4) what the mode and frequency of interaction between the mentor and mentee will be; and (5) what responsibilities the mentor will be expected to assume. The stages of formal mentoring programs are seen in seven components: development, notification, selection, orientation, pairing, implementation, and evaluation.

The formal mentoring program the author describes seems to exist for the corporation's benefit with minimal employee benefits, and with employees participating at the recommendation of their corporation. The potential for career suicide for employees who do not fit the corporate mold would seem to be high, given the context of some mentoring activities described as requiring "employee openness."

Success of the author's formal mentor program depends on communicating program goals to program participants, ensuring that the entire organization supports the program and will not sabotage it, making the mentor/mentee selection process autonomous, making sure selected mentors are committed to participating and carrying out the goals of the project, permitting either the mentor or mentee to withdraw from program if they wish, evaluating the program on an ongoing basis, and allowing the program to be tested over a significant period of time.

Zey, M. (1984). *The mentor connection.* Homewood, IL: Dow Jones-Irwin.

The author describes how to choose a mentor or protege, develop such a mentor relationship, establish goals for the relationship, and evaluate career mobility in terms of the mentoring phenomena. Interviews with over 150 executives in Fortune 500 companies and smaller firms provided the author's data. The author encountered reliability problems with this research given that interviewees were asked to retrospectively recall information, and the use of unclear operational definitions.

The author assumes that mentoring is the most effective way to stimulate productivity and "good" management development, but offers little substantiation. The author does note such negatives of mentor relationships as the potential for mentoring to lead to favoritism or destruction of peer cohesion, and offers a limited analysis of how mentoring perpetuates weaknesses in organizational systems of authority.

Women may benefit more from male mentoring than female mentoring, with male mentoring a reasonable short-term strategy for individuals; however, larger social structural issues for women as a group are ignored. Also, the author says that most studies indicate administrators and managers are both more likely to be mentors and to have negative attitudes toward women in positions of authority. Good mentors are seen as teachers who may re-socialize mentees, and who may even transform a mentee's self-concept. However, mentoring in such a context by such an individual may in turn institutionalize sexist attitudes and feelings.

The author's perception of the negative side of mentoring is limited to individual failures such as a mentor's losing organizational favor, mentees becoming too dependent on the mentor, and such.